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STEPS IN OUR SCHOOL REFORM.

In treating, in a former article, of the progress which has been made in improving the condition of our schools, we referred to certain measures of legislation in the State, at different periods, and also to the introduction of the system of graded schools in some of its towns. We did this in order to show that whoever pretends that the reform which has been witnessed, during the last forty years, is to be ascribed to any one man, or any half-dozen men, greatly mistakes in his facts as well as in his judgment. It is often difficult to tell, in measures involving the action of the popular mind, and in which individuals were forward to give guidance and direction to it, whether there is a pervading sentiment and feeling in the community which gives the impulse to individual action, or it is the power of will and force of conviction in individual minds, which make themselves felt in moving the till then inert mass of popular judgment. As a general thing, it will be found in all such movements, that individuals are but the index and representatives of an already existing popular conviction, and their action is in the direction in which the public mind is in fact tending, where these more active reforms first enter upon the field.

If Peter the Hermit had been obliged to educate the people of Europe to a knowledge of the condition of the East, and the per-

secutions to which western pilgrims were subjected, before they were in a fit state of mind to be aroused by his passionate appeals to their sympathies and superstitions, hopes and fears, he would have died and been forgotten long before that condition of things could have been accomplished. Instead of that, these persecutions and insults had been so long and so often repeated in the public ear, that it only needed a spark from such a brain as his, to set the whole of Europe ablaze.

All we mean by this is to justify the remark that when the reform of our school system began, as well as in its progress ever since, the impulse was given, and the requisite force supplied, from the pervading conviction of those who give direction to the public mind, that change and reform was needed. The leaders, moreover, in this reform, were not only numerous, but scattered in every part of the State, so that whenever any one assumed to act as the organ of such reform, he did not create, but helped to guide the moral power upon which its success depended.

We hear, at times, much said of the advance made by means of normal schools, and the advantages which have resulted from their establishment. And there has been a popular idea that we owe those, as we do their name, to one of the monarchies of Europe. That Massachusetts, where the idea of free schools originated, where it had been practically carried out for near two centuries, is indebted to Prussia for the idea of preparing those who were to be teachers in those free schools, would be indeed a matter of wonder and surprise, if it had any foundation in fact. But the idea was far from being a new one when our system of normal schools was established in 1837. We are not disposed to arrogate to any one man or score of men the merit of having produced this entire reform in our system. But we may with propriety refer to the efforts and opinions of one individual in this direction to justify the truth of the remark, that our normal schools are a home institution in their character and application. We allude to the Rev. S. R. Hall, who, in a ripe old age, is able to look back upon a life spent in the work of educating the young, and advancing the cause of education generally. It is not our purpose to attempt the personal history of this venerable laborer in the cause of common schools,

nor is there any occasion for this, since a pretty full notice of him may be found in the fifth vol. of Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, p. 373, published in 1858. The blackboard, now in such universal use, was introduced by him into his school for the purpose of illustration and demonstration of problems, as early as 1818. But what we wish to notice more particularly is his connection with the incipient measures in regard to normal schools. He conceived and proposed the plan of a school to teach teachers as early as 1822. Nor was he deterred in its prosecution by consideration of the entire absence of the patronage or countenance of men of influence, or the remoteness of the sphere in which the experiment was to be made. He established a school for this purpose in the inconsiderable town of Concord, Vermont, in which he had been settled as a minister, and the success of the enterprise was all he could have desired. It was crowded with pupils, and it was for the benefit of those that he prepared and delivered that admirable course of lectures on school-keeping, which were published in 1829. These lectures were wholly original on his part, as he had then never seen or heard of a single tract in the English language upon the subject. The manner in which they were received, was an illustration of what we have already said of the state of preparation of the public mind at that time upon that subject. They were found to supply a present and existing want. A second edition was issued in 1830. New York alone purchased ten thousand copies for its schools, and copies circulated in Kentucky and Ohio, as well as through the New England States. Nor is it too much to say that, probably, no one cause was so active and effectual in arousing an interest in our schools, or giving them an onward impulse, as that little volume of a trifle over one hundred pages. In accordance with the views and purposes of Mr. Hall upon this great idea of a seminary for teaching teachers, a department was established by the trustees of Phillips Andover Academy, of which Mr. Hall was called to take charge, which embraced a normal or teachers' department. While thus engaged, he read a lecture before the American Institute, in the formation of which, in 1829, he had taken a part, on "the necessity of educating teachers." This was in 1833. In consequence of failing health, he was

obliged to relinquish his place in Andover in 1836, and engaged in a similar institution of a normal character the following year in Plymouth, N. H. Here he remained till 1840, when he removed to Craftsbury, Vermont, where, in connection with his charge of a church and society, he continued to labor in the department in the academy in that town, in which normal instruction, under his charge, was given. He is now pastor of a church in Brownington, Vermont. But the limited space allotted to us for this article, neither admits of a fuller personal notice of Mr. Hall, nor a notice of the lectures which accomplished so much in awakening public attention to the purposes and means of school education. So rapid, however, are the changes through which we are passing, so many new books and new schemes are occupying the minds of those who are interested in the subject, and so many, now that common schools have become a more than ordinarily popular institution, are disposed to give all due prominence to the action of distinguished friends of education, that it seemed to us to be no more than an act of justice to the father of the normal system in New England to recall even in this imperfect manner, his early efforts in the cause of schools, and the success of that scheme which he attempted, single and alone, to introduce into the system of which we are justly so proud. The first meeting of the Board of Education was held in June, 1837, and the scheme of normal schools was so far completed that a locality for one of them was fixed upon in December, 1838, — some fifteen years after Mr. Hall had practically shown its feasibility and success in Vermont, and seven years after a like demonstration had been exhibited by him in Massachusetts. He found, it is true, able and active coadjutors in his work, and it would give us great pleasure if we had space to speak of Woodbridge and Holbrook and their associates, whose aid and encouragement Mr. Hall was always ready to acknowledge. But there was, after all, a true heroism in the manner in which he took hold of the work of education, which no generous mind can fail to appreciate and admire. Born in humble life, reared in childhood with the cramped and limited advantages of education in a pioneer community, without, in the end, the benefit of a collegiate or even an extended school training, he undertook the work for which he

seems to have had the instincts of genius — of school teaching. The field such as he contemplated it, was a new one. He had neither the incitement of the example of others, to make an effort to elevate the business of teaching, nor the instrumentalities at hand by which he could hope to accomplish this. His field of operations, at first, was as circumscribed as a country school district in Wilton or Fitchburg, and afterwards an obscure town in Vermont, without the patronage of a dollar or the advantage of a single name of influence in his favor. Yet never doubting, and looking only to what was wanting to give effect to a scheme of free schools, which had been struck out, as it were, by inspiration by the fathers of New England, he gave an impulse to an enterprise, the fruits of which he may now, at the age of more than threescore years and ten, contemplate with the consciousness of a successful and well directed effort. And what teacher in New England may not take fresh courage in his work from the examples of such men?

HISTORICUS.

ON TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

[CONCLUDED.]

When a class of children begin to consider the different political divisions into which this goodly planet of ours has been cut up by the whims or avarice of men, they should, at the same time, be taught to represent each section as it is studied, and, as they proceed, to compare different sections, as to their relative position on the surface of the earth, size, climate, productions, and so forth.

But, before these subjects can be studied understandingly, that of latitude, longitude, and division by circles must be taken up. This is a subject which stands in sore need of some champion, to throw down the gauntlet in its defence. I believe there is no other in geography so little understood by the majority of children, and consequently so much disliked as this. Yet it ought not to be so; it may be made exceedingly interesting, and it may also, if properly taught, afford good and strengthening food for the growing mind of the child, to which growth, good and strengthening food is so essential and yet so frequently denied. I think every

one will admit that his own conception of this subject is to be ascribed only in a very small degree to the efforts of the teachers who endeavored to initiate him into its mysteries; that in fact, unless he were uncommonly fortunate, those efforts were utterly fruitless; that however early, and however fluently he could repeat the definitions of latitude and longitude, he had really no definite comprehension of the subject, until, with increasing years, it gradually dawned upon him. But how many heart-aches, how many "curses not loud but deep," the committing to memory of those definitions caused, simply because they were entirely devoid of the least glimmer of intelligibility!

How frequently we hear teachers say, "I don't wonder my children cannot understand these subjects: I couldn't myself, when I was their age." What was the reason you could not? Because you were not properly taught.

Now, it is a melancholy fact, that though all teachers admit the faultiness of their own early instruction, yet very few if any vary a shade in their own teaching from the method pursued in imparting that instruction ten, fifteen, or twenty years ago. Why is this? Because, either from lack of inclination, or from the fact of their attention not having been roused to the matter, they give no thought or study to it; and without such thought and study no reformation can be effected.

If teachers are so ready to admit the faultiness of the old methods of instruction, why will they persist, nevertheless, in working by those very methods? If they are faulty, they can be improved; and it seems to me that every teacher should feel that upon her individually rests the responsibility of effecting the improvement. Of course the means of effecting it are very many. Any method is an improvement which discards utterly the parrot-like, senseless repetition of definitions, and of which the main object is to awaken the minds of the children, and lead them to think out for themselves, guided of course by the teacher, a just and definite comprehension of the subject. Perhaps scarcely any two teachers would devise the same method, although there might be many equally good. One plan might be suggested, something as follows: By using a slate globe, the equator, axis, and poles of the earth

may be easily taught. Only one difficulty will arise, — that of applying the points of the compass, previously learned by lessons in Place, which, by the way, should precede even the simplest lesson in geography, to globes and maps. This is not, however, a subject which in itself affords much scope for ingenuity, either on the part of the teacher or learner. It must be thoroughly learned of course, as it is the only key to an understanding of the subject of representation on maps and globes, but probably nearly every teacher would devise a very similar method in teaching it. When it is familiar to the class, — when they can state accurately whether certain points indicated on the globe are east or west, north or south of one another, they are ready for latitude and longitude.

Two or more points being placed on the globe, the class will readily say, "The first," — A, for instance, — "is north of the equator, because it is nearer to the North Pole." — "B is farther north of the equator, because it is still nearer to the North Pole." The *idea*, observe, is now developed: it only remains to give the term "latitude," which, being done, the children can be easily led to substitute the expression, "B is in a more northern latitude than A," for "B is farther north of the equator than A." From this a definition of latitude may be drawn, if one is desired, which is, it appears to me, quite unessential. Of course, throughout this lesson, the distinction between northern and southern latitude is kept in view, and the class exercised in determining the relative latitude of places both north and south of the equator.

In teaching longitude, it would be necessary to draw a circle on the globe, representing the meridian of Greenwich, and state to the children that if we imagine ourselves facing the North Pole, all that part of the globe at the right of the meridian is east, and that at the left, west. Exercise the class in placing points to the right or left of the line, giving in each case the direction of the points from the meridian, and their relative distance east or west of it. After some practice in this, the term "longitude" may be given, and the expression "A is in a more eastern longitude than B," substituted for "A is farther east of the meridian than B."

As soon as these fundamental ideas are firmly fixed, the class may be led to discover a difficulty. Though they can state the

relative latitude or longitude of two or more places, yet they cannot determine the *absolute* latitude or longitude of each of those places taken separately. Their minds being now awakened by finding themselves in difficulty, they will be eager for the explanation. Here comes in the subject of parallels and meridians as measures of latitude and longitude, preceded by an explanation of the use of the term "degree." The point requiring special attention in this explanation is the varying length of a degree. I mention this particularly, because I remember with what vexation and disquietude of spirit I used to wonder how in the world there could be as many degrees in a circle an inch in diameter as in one a yard in diameter.

A very few words from the teacher will make this point clear, and very few more will convey to the children the information that we fix the latitude of a place by observing the number of degrees between the point and the equator. Now, how may this number be ascertained? Drawing two circles on the globe to represent the equator and the meridian of Greenwich, the teacher divides the meridian into spaces of five degrees each, numbering the marked points 5, 10, 15, &c., and explaining to the class that the first point stands for a place 5° north of the equator, the next a place 10° north of the equator, and so on.

Next, she exercises the class in determining the latitude of different places located exactly on one of the marked points. When this idea is firmly established, she locates a place *between* two of the marked points, and leaves the class to find out for themselves how its latitude may be ascertained. Very soon some one will devise the expedient of sub-dividing the given space into five spaces, each representing one degree. It is surprising how readily children will devise ways and means to extricate themselves from any such dilemma, if they are only thoroughly interested in the work, and alive to the want of what they seek. As yet, however, they are only able to fix the latitude of a place situated exactly on the meridian. When they can do this readily, the teacher places a point a little distance to the right or left of the meridian, and again leaves the class to ascertain its latitude. Feeling that they are thrown on their own resources, one of them will at length, if the

teacher is patient, devise the expedient of drawing a line round the globe, parallel to the equator, and passing through the marked point opposite the place whose latitude is to be ascertained. Afterwards, as the subject becomes easier, the class may be exercised in determining the latitude of places so situated as not to lie directly in a line with any one of the marked points, and in a very short time they will do this with respect to any place however situated.

After a few additional lessons on longitude, conducted on the same plan, they will be able to determine accurately both the latitude and longitude of any place on the globe, and this with such ease, and even pleasure, as would cause the eyes of the poor little martyrs to the book-definition system to open wide with wonder.

The whole subject could be taught in a dozen lessons, and afterwards there would be no necessity for that senseless drill, which, notwithstanding it is such a weariness of the flesh to both teacher and pupil, is so frequently, universally almost, practised in our schools.

Many a time have I entered a school-room, a half, three quarters, a whole hour, after school, nay, even more than that, and seen two or three unhappy little urchins, so unfortunate as not to be blessed by Providence with retentive memories, holding Warren's Primary Geography in their poor little tired hands, and buzzing away in a vain endeavor to make their poor little tired brains hold the hated words just long enough to enable them to rattle off the lesson to the teacher, and thus escape their thralldom. It seems to me most unjustifiable that teachers who are either too indolent or too thoughtless to do the work of teaching the children committed to their care, should be guilty of actual cruelty in compelling them to do what is for some almost impossible, — commit to memory strings of words to which they attach no meaning whatever. If a child is inattentive or indolent, I see no objection to his being made to feel that if he does not choose to do his work at the time assigned for that work, he will do it at any time most convenient for his teacher. There is no cruelty in that, — simply justice. But not more than one child out of ten will be found, who, if properly taught, will be inattentive or indolent.

One strong reason why so many children are complained of as being lazy, stupid, obstinate, is contained in this remark which I heard a teacher make not long since: "I do not dare to get thoroughly carried away by a lesson, for if I do, my children get so excited that they become disorderly." Alas, poor children! You are not to be interested, you are not to be pleased, you are not to be waked up, lest, perchance, you become disorderly!

As strict school discipline is the one thing indispensable to most, or many teachers, and as, most unfortunately, it is not in the nature of children to become intensely interested in anything, and still retain a rigidly upright position, and never, come what may, forget to raise the hand before answering, it follows, to the minds of those teachers, that rather than sacrifice the upright position and extended hand, it is better to avoid all such undue degree of interest, and preserve the minds of their pupils in that much-to-be-desired state of calm and tranquil serenity, — say not stupidity, — which would insure for their schools a quiet, orderly, and well-disciplined appearance, "if any body should happen to come in." For my part, I consider that class in the best order in which each member is so thoroughly interested in the subject under discussion as to forget every other, even the weighty one of his position, and the perfect repose of his feet.

The two subjects which remain to be considered are the diurnal and annual motions of the earth, and the consequent phenomena. These would not be touched upon, according to the course suggested, until the children have arrived at the age of twelve or thirteen years. It seems to me, that at this age, the acquisition of the information will be better appreciated, will afford more rational enjoyment than if taught, however well, before the minds of the children are sufficiently mature to enable them to form any just conception of the subject. Both may be taught on a plan similar to that pursued in teaching the form of the earth, — by leading the pupils, from a knowledge of the phenomena, to reason out the cause of those phenomena.

Before I leave this subject of mathematical geography, I would speak of one thing more which has been suggested in such remarks as this — "What need is there of taking half an hour to teach

children that the earth is round, or that its revolution on its axis causes the change from day to night? They could learn it in three minutes." Very true; but in all instruction—in elementary instruction especially—are we not aiming to form as well as furnish the mind? And how do we help to form or strengthen the mind of a child by telling him that the earth is round? I would rather let him reason it out for himself, even if it took more than one half hour, and am very sure that the loss of time would be amply compensated by the increased intelligence and independence of thought evoked.

I have as yet said nothing about political geography. Generally speaking, it is much better taught than mathematical geography, for the reason that it is impossible to teach it with such utter disregard to principle as we may be guilty of in the latter. Still there is fault that might be found. For instance, I dislike to go into a school and hear the teacher say, without any preliminary, "Take France for your next lesson." Still more do I dislike, when the hour for recitation arrives, to see one pupil after another stand and recite a part or the whole of the text contained in the book relating to France. I know of more than one teacher who requires each of her pupils to recite the whole of the lesson, word for word, she, meanwhile, sitting quietly at her desk, giving a very small proportion of her attention to the recitation, while the rest is devoted to keeping an observant watch over the deportment of the rest of the class, who being idle, both mentally and physically, are naturally ready for any mischief that may present itself.

A better way, I think, would be for each of the class to take his atlas, and, turning to the map of the country in question, talk about it; noticing the boundaries, mountains, rivers, lakes, and whatever other natural features may be indicated on the map, mentioning at the same time any facts relating to them that may chance to come within his knowledge. They may judge also, from the latitude and other circumstances, of the character of the climate,—from that of the character of the productions, exports, imports, etc. The teacher at the same time endeavors, by giving any additional information she may possess, which may interest or benefit the class, by showing pictures, and by reading, as suggested by a contributor to the Teacher, narratives of adventure, descriptions of scenery, &c., to

impress on the minds of her pupils a correct and vivid idea of the country which they are studying. Whenever this result is achieved, she gives them a list of topics relating to the boundaries of the country, its rivers, mountains, lakes, towns, &c., and the character of the inhabitants, the climate, and the productions, on which they are to prepare themselves, from any source whatever, for the lesson to which this conversation is only to be considered as an introduction. They are also required to be able to draw a map of the country from memory, reciting what they have learned respecting each feature, as it is represented.

In this way political geography may be made an actual recreation for both teacher and pupils, and the latter may acquire much more general information than can possibly be the case where all the knowledge they contrive to glean is contained in the few words of the text-book.

And is it not actually the *duty* of teachers to renounce at once this lifeless, crumbling system of words without ideas? It seems to me that it is no longer a question of taste or expediency, but one of simple right and wrong—that any teacher who has the ability, or can acquire the ability, to pursue a different course, and yet neglects to do so, is guilty of a moral wrong of no small magnitude, and it becomes those who hold the reins of power in these latter days, to remember the words of our greatest thinker: “How can an inanimate, mechanical, gerund-grinder foster the growth of anything; much more of mind, which grows, not like a vegetable by having its roots littered with etymological compost, but like a spirit, by mysterious contact of spirit; thought kindling itself at the fire of living thought? How shall *he* give kindling in whose own inward man there is no live coal, but all is burnt out to a dead grammatical cinder,—who knows of the human soul thus much: that it has a faculty called memory, which can be acted on through the muscular integument by appliance of birch rods? Alas! so it is everywhere, so will it ever be, till the hodman is discharged or reduced to hod-bearing; and an architect is hired, and on all hands, fitly encouraged; till communities, and individuals discover that with generals and field-marshal for killing, there should be world-honored dignitaries, and were it possible, true, God-ordained priests for teaching.”

F. H. T.

OUGHT CORPORAL PUNISHMENT TO BE INFLICTED
FOR IMPERFECT RECITATIONS?

The writer of the following pages proposes to discuss the question from a primary school teacher's point of view, and in the negative, on the ground that such punishment is, as a practice, injudicious.

Though there are various causes of imperfect recitations, it is probable that idleness is the chief, but idleness itself has a cause, either mental or physical; and though there can be no perfect recitation without industry, it does not follow that the most persistent industry will always secure a perfect recitation. Sometimes there is an inherent difficulty; the lesson which is of a reasonable length for the average of the class, is too long for the few whose intellects move more slowly; or, if judiciously assigned as to length, the subject may be uninteresting, or the text unintelligible to a child, on account of being expressed in unfamiliar terms. And even when a lesson has been thoroughly committed to memory, there may be a failure in recitation, arising from distracted attention or some other disturbing cause.

We think, however, that if the true cause of a large proportion of the failures in recitation which a thoroughly "live" and interesting teacher encounters, could be ascertained, it would be found to lie, not in the mental disinclination of the pupil for study, but in disability produced by physical causes, such as insufficient sleep, over-excited nerves, or indigestion. It would be hardly reasonable to expect thorough attention and interested study the morning after the Fourth of July, yet there is scarcely a day when some of our pupils have not been having a Fourth of July or its equivalent in unseasonable hours, improper food, and exciting amusements.

The teacher is unaware of the cause why Master John does not study, indeed Master John does not know himself,—he only knows he "cannot get his lesson," and the rattan or the ruler comes down unsparingly on the young offender for not executing what was really as hopeless a task, for the time being, as the labors of Sisyphus. Whereas "the old folks at home" are the parties who really deserve the castigation.

We do not say there are *no cases* in which corporal punishment should be administered for the idleness which causes imperfect recitations, but that we think the *practice* injudicious, not only because there may have been temporary inability to acquire the lesson, but because violence does not promote mental growth.

The true object of all study is to lead the learner to think for himself, to expand his mind, and this cannot be done through fear. Fear may possibly make one child study more or commit more words to memory, but nine out of ten would feel its disturbing influence too much to be able to fix the attention enough to assimilate ideas.

It has been said that there is no royal road to learning, and we are certainly not of those who believe that every step can be made smooth and every dark spot luminous; but we do believe that no pains should be spared to invest every employment of the school-room with interest, and every possible light be brought to bear upon the little learner's pathway to make it attractive.

But every teacher knows that while a new reading lesson, a fresh page of spelling to write down, a new map to study, or a new article in descriptive geography may be made to glow with interest, and every eye will beam brightly, and every mind be on the alert to listen to her remarks or suggestions, or answer her questions, such a lesson once gone over is not fixed in the memory of any but the brightest and most retentive,—the majority go away as would the same number of adults from a good lecture or sermon, knowing they have been interested, but unable to give even the heads. Afterwards must come the drudgery; the old reading lesson must be read again and again till all the interest is out of it, the drilling upon the spelling lesson must continue till every word is perfectly learned, the soiled and familiar maps pored over till every name is stamped upon the memory. Then the child flags in interest, does not want to study, thinks he knows it because he has been over it before, and fails to-day on the lesson he recited perfectly a month ago; and just at this point comes in the teacher's temptation to resort to the cheap stimulus of the rod. We said "cheap,"—no, it is always dear, for no teacher can afford to incur the ill will which such a course excites, and it rarely is a benefit to the pupil.

The evil incidental to such a practice is aggravated by threatening. A young teacher had given out the same lesson on two successive days to her little class in spelling. It was neither too long nor too difficult, but they failed through idleness, for it was a review, and they were "sure they knew it." Not knowing what to do, she said, "Children, you may take this lesson again to-morrow, and I shall punish any one who misses two words." In the class was a conscientious, delicate, thoughtful little boy, who had not missed on either of the two days. He carried home his book and studied that afternoon and evening, and was up early the next morning at his lesson. He loved his teacher dearly, and had never been willing to be absent a day, but as school time drew near, he grew anxious and nervous, and at last burst into tears, and begged to stay at home from school. His mother pressed him for a reason, and he finally told her that his teacher had said she should punish all who missed two words, and "I know," said he, "that I shall miss two, I can't help it." His dread was so great that his mother allowed him to stay at home, and when she saw the teacher she told her the reason. The teacher, however, was in no danger of rashly threatening again, for the promise had no sooner passed her lips than she regretted it, feeling that she might be obliged, in order to keep her word, to punish some of her most faithful and conscientious pupils.

We do not think, either, that it often happens that a child who is disinclined to study is brought to a studious mood through fear. In the writer's own childhood, she attended a private school, under a genial and judicious teacher, till in her ninth year, when she entered a public school. It was one of the old régime where fear and harshness reigned.

One Saturday forenoon, a task was set for the first class, of six verses of Scripture to commit to memory, the pupils selecting their own lessons. Ours was the first six verses of the second chapter of the Gospel of John. It was short enough and easy enough, if we could have studied, but we could not fix our attention, though we knew that a failure would bring certain punishment. Perhaps it was our breakfast that was in fault; however that may be, when the class was called out, we had learned but three verses perfectly.

The class was large, and extended round three sides of the room, and our place was near the middle of the class. It was weary waiting with aching limbs, while each pupil recited six verses, or was called out for punishment, and our heart quailed, for we had never been struck a blow in the school-room. At last, our turn came, and with faltering and hesitation, we got as far as the "six water-pots of stone," and there we broke down. A stentorian voice bade us "Come out in the floor," — but, terror-stricken, we stood still till a strong hand swung us to the place of execution, and there, with hand strained high above our head, blow after blow came down upon the quivering palm; and sundry shakes and cuffs added bewilderment to our already confused brain. So, to our dying day, the beautiful story of the marriage in Cana of Galilee will be associated with the painful memory of our only whipping at school. Perhaps the friends who are waiting to argue the affirmative side of the question will discover herein our reason for taking the negative. We leave it to them if it is not a *striking* reason.

But, be this as it may, we think punishment for failure should only be administered after persistent idleness, and then the pupil should understand that it was *for* idleness.

It will be asked, perhaps, by young teachers, "What shall we do, then, in case of imperfect recitations?" Experiencing in our own case the difficulties of those who have a given amount of work to do in a given time, we can only reply by recommending to others, and practising ourselves, the old rule deemed so very applicable to children, "Try, try, again," with positive patience to-day, comparative patience to-morrow, and superlative patience next day; remembering our own childhood, with its vexations and tasks, and the unreasonableness of our elders; and see to it that we lay up in no youthful heart a store of bitter memories. But rather let us enable each to carry from our school-rooms grateful recollections, of all healing and genial influences, to gladden future hours, when life shall lay on them its heavy discipline.

H. T. W.

GLEANINGS.

A TRUE GENTLEMAN.—A gentleman is not merely a person acquainted with certain forms and etiquettes of life, easy and self-possessed in society, able to speak and act and move in the world without awkwardness, and free from habits which are vulgar and in bad taste. A gentleman is something much beyond this; that which lies at the root of all his ease and refinement, and tact and power of pleasing, is the same spirit which lies at the root of every Christian virtue. It is the thoughtful desire of doing in every instance to others as he would that others should do unto him. He is constantly thinking, not indeed how he may give pleasure to others for the mere sense of pleasing, but how he can show respect for others—how he may avoid hurting their feelings. When he is in society, he scrupulously ascertains the position and relation of every one with whom he is brought into contact, that he may give to each his due honor, his proper position. He studies how he may avoid touching in conversation upon any subject which may needlessly hurt their feelings—how he may abstain from any allusion which may call up a disagreeable or offensive association. A gentleman never alludes to, never even appears conscious of, any personal defect, bodily deformity, inferiority of talent, of rank, of reputation, in the persons in whose society he is placed. He never assumes any superiority to himself—never ridicules, never sneers, never boasts, never makes a display of his own power or rank or advantages—such as is implied in ridicule or sarcasm or abuse—as he never indulges in habits or tricks or inclinations which may be offensive to others. He feels, as a mere member of society, that he has no right to trespass upon others, to wound or annoy them. And he feels, as a Christian, that they are his brothers—that, as his brothers, they are children, like himself, of God—members, like himself, of Christ—heirs, like himself, of the kingdom of heaven.—*Quarterly Review*.

PRACTICAL ABILITY.—In the management of great and complicated negotiations, and also in those of lesser concern, where there

are various interfering interests, requiring mutual adjustment and accommodation, often with little time to devise expedients, the man nowise substantially deficient in talents, who can only think or act according to a regular process, is completely outstripped by the ready use of those powers by which men conceive, judge and determine as by intuition. Many persons can make a set speech for a public assembly, if they have time for preparation, who are altogether thrown out if anything unexpected occur to derange their prepared train of thought, and their connected chain of reasoning; but how different is this slow and cumbersome process, from the facility and dexterity with which the accomplished orator draws his materials, in the instant, from the most remote sources of his knowledge, or from the readiness with which the man of science supplies himself with appropriate arguments and lucid illustrations, to confirm his theory or his hypothesis!

Any system of education, therefore, which promotes the development of those intellectual energies, which tends to create presence of mind, a ready command of the faculties, a fertility of expedients, spirit in the attempt, and celerity in the execution, must prove of incalculable benefit. These important processes of mind are apt to be impeded, rather than improved, by the common discipline and the ordinary routine of our systems of public instruction. Many, indeed, have doubted how far these high intellectual energies are at all within the reach of education. But no fair trial has yet been made. Why should not the attempt be hazarded, instead of dreaming on forever, and slavishly following the beaten track, without any effort at improvement?—*Jardine's Philosophical Education.*

DR. HENRY WARE AS A TEACHER.—Dr. Ware, you know, had a large family of his own, and, during a large part of his life, he used to have boys in his house to educate. He was considered very wise and successful in the management of them. He used to say that he had no system about it, and never could arrive at any. Once, when asked by a parent to draw up some set of rules for the government of children, he replied by an anecdote: "Dr. Hitchcock," he said "was settled in Sandwich; and when he made his first exchange with the Plymouth minister, he must needs pass through the Plymouth woods,—a nine miles' wilderness, where

travellers almost always got lost, and frequently came out at the point they started from. Dr. H., on entering this much dreaded labyrinth, met an old woman, and asked her to give him some directions for getting through the woods so as to fetch up at Plymouth rather than Sandwich. 'Certainly,' she said, 'I will tell you all about it with the greatest pleasure. You will just keep right on till you get some way into the woods, and you will come to a place where several roads branch off. Then you must stop and consider, and take the one *that seems to you most likely* to bring you out right.' He did so, and came out right. "I have always followed the worthy and sensible old lady's advice in bringing up my children. I do not think anybody can do better,—at any rate I cannot." And yet he had some rules, practically, whether he knew it or not. One was, never to reprove a child at the moment, or in presence of other people, but to call him into the study afterwards for a solitary talk. No child, I suppose, ever left his study, on such an occasion, without increased love and reverence for him; but it was a formidable affair, though he used not many words, and was always mild in his manner. "I do wish," said one of his elder boys to another of them, "I do wish father would flog us, and done with it,—but this talk, there is no standing that; it knocks a fellow up so entirely, and makes one feel so."

It was a principle with him to make but few points with a child, and avoid collision of wills, if practicable, but when he did take a stand, to abide by it, and prevail. But he was once known to surrender this principle, and acknowledge himself beaten. The boy got into a fit of passionate disobedience, and the Doctor, after a long contest, gave in. An elder member of the family wondered that he should yield. He said that some torrents were so violent that they had better be left to themselves than resisted; and besides, he said he did not wish to set the child an example of obstinate wilfulness, but would rather let him see that the strongest must and could yield sometimes.

He was kind to children, and had a happy influence with them. Two little girls, near neighbors of his, had imbibed a great terror of thunder, owing to the example of a grandmother who lived with them. She was accustomed, every summer afternoon without fail,

to walk round and examine the sky, in search of thunder clouds, and if she discovered one no bigger than a man's hand, she would immediately shut herself into her chamber, and generally take the children with her, where she would spend the afternoon in a state of the greatest agitation. The Doctor, seeing the effect upon these poor children, determined to do all in his power to avert what he foresaw would be the consequences in after-life. He used, at such times, to send for them to come and stay with his own children, and, after calming their minds, would either leave them to themselves, or, if he found them still agitated with terror, he would amuse them by playing on his flute, and sometimes set all hands to dancing, and strive in various ways to beguile them of their fears. It came at last to be considered quite a holiday, when there were signs of an approaching shower. Those children, to this day, remember with gratitude the invaluable service he rendered them. — *Rev. Geo. Putnam in Sprague's Annals of the Unitarian Pulpit.*

A CORRECT EYE. — Speaking from my own experience of working men, I am satisfied that could we only pay more attention to educating the eye and bringing forth the often latent faculty of comparison, a most important benefit would result, not only to the workmen, but to the perfection of the manufactures of the country. Nine-tenths of all the bad work and botches that occur in our own business of engineers and machine-makers results from the want of that mere power of comparison and "correct eye" which is so rare amongst such classes of workmen; not that the faculty is absent — it is only dormant, having never been cultivated or educated as it ought to be; for it is of all faculties the most useful to a working man. The annoyance I meet with, and the vexation and loss I encounter from the simple matter of crooked work to be drilled into true is beyond all conception to those who are not practically conversant with the very limited power of workmen in general in this respect. When a workman has a correct eye, his work is not only executed with far greater despatch, by reason of not having incessantly to stop working and occupy his time in looking if he is working correct or not; but when such work results from a mechanic with a correct eye brought into action, by reason of all the parts being in true and accurate relation to one another, all goes off smooth

at once, and is durable in proportion; and I am satisfied that the faculty of comparison is latent in all, and in most, capable of being developed by suitable teaching in youth; and knowing as I do its vast commercial value, I would most earnestly advise in all our schools, especially in those for the education of the working classes, that much time and careful attention be devoted to the cultivation of this almost invaluable, but at present totally neglected faculty. — *James Nasmyth, inventor of the steam-hammer.*

EDUCATION OF GIRLS. — Desultory and heterogeneous reading is the great evil of all young women. Our education (if education it can be called) is nearly ended by the time that our minds begin to open and to be really eager for information. When you men are sent to college we are left (such of us as are not obliged to gain our bread or to mend our own clothes) to positive idleness without any object, end or aim to encourage any one employment of our mind more than another. Our imaginations are naturally more lively than yours, our powers of steady attention I think less than yours. What would you have us do? Entire frivolity or any and every book that falls into our hands are our only resources; and though nobody is more aware than myself that this sort of desultory reading during the first years of (mental) life does often much mischief and is attended always with a great waste of time, yet it has at least this good effect, — *et scio quod loquor*, — that a love of reading thus natural and thus indulged is often a happy preventive in future life against more serious follies, more pernicious idleness, and it is to be hoped may be counted upon as a real resource in those days when the attractions of the world and of society fade as much in *our* eyes as our attractions fade in *theirs*. — *Journal and Correspondence of Miss Berry*, II. 313.

Education partly gives us materials and partly skill to use them. So far as it gives skill by cultivating and training the mind, women's education is ordinarily arrested at the point before which skill cannot seriously be given. It is not true that a girl of seventeen can afford to shut up her books and amuse herself more than a boy of seventeen. It is not true that she is more eager to shut them up and amuse herself. But the modern world requires her to do so and has led her to expect it since she was seven. We think the

world makes this requirement mainly because men prefer flowers to fruit. And when men mount their pulpits they term the result of their preference "female frivolity." . . . Until women are allowed education during the years when education is at once by far more of a pleasure and of a profit, it seems to me simply idle to affirm what nature allows or does not allow them to do in those regions wherein education in the largest sense is an essential prerequisite. — *F. T. Palgrave.*

Editor's Department.

TEACHERS AND POLITICS.

The convention of Southern rebels and Northern copperheads and office seekers has met at Philadelphia, and parted. Nominally rejecting some utterly discredited rascals, they have really indorsed them, and now they are entering a political contest whose object really is to see whether the loyal masses of the North will throw away the fruits of all the treasure expended and of all the thousands of brave and noble hearts sacrificed for freedom, and reinstate in place and power over the country the men who still in their hearts share the spirit of the bygone monster of iniquity, Slavery. We cannot for a moment believe the issue doubtful: yet these are still times when it behoves every true and loyal man and woman to be faithful to duty, and to labor in season and out of season for Freedom and Right. We are not of those who believe that any class or profession of men are excused from "meddling with politics." If it is the duty of any classes in the community, beyond all others, to give open testimony in behalf of Right and Justice it is preachers and teachers.. If they do not do so they are unworthy to be called instructors of the people.

We believe we truly represent the sentiment of an overwhelming majority of the teachers, both men and women, of Massachusetts, when we pledge them heart and soul to the upholding of the cause of equal rights to all men irrespective of race or color, and to determined opposition to all parties that would seek to restore rebel States or rebel men to place and power until the fullest guarantee of all those rights has been given that the wit of man can devise, or the power of the nation can compass.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

The thirty-seventh annual meeting of the Institute began Aug. 7 in the beautiful little city of Burlington, Vt., and continued through the 8th and 9th. We borrow the following account of the proceedings from the *Boston Advertiser* :

AUGUST 7.

The exercises began with prayer by Rev. Mr. Morse, of Burlington, after which Prof. Matthew H. Buckham of the University welcomed the members of the Institute to Burlington in a short address. The president of the Institute, B. G. Northrop, of Framingham, Mass., made an appropriate reply.

The chair announced the customary committees, and the treasurer's report was submitted by William E. Sheldon, of Boston. The receipts amounted to \$824.82, which includes \$500 granted by the State of Massachusetts, and the expenses, \$633.30, which leaves a balance in the treasury of the Institute of \$191.52. This report was referred to Eli A. Hubbard, Esq., of Springfield, as auditor.

A discussion ensued on the following subject: 'Our Schools — their influence, on Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures, Civil Policy, and Morals.'

The discussion was opened by A. P. Stone, of Portland, who spoke of the relations of our educational institutions to commerce.

A. A. Miner, D. D., President of Tufts College, continued the discussion on the influence of the schools upon the morals of the people, in an able address, which found a hearty response in the meeting.

Absalom Peters, D. D., formerly editor of the *American Journal of Education* and *College Review*, spoke next, and advocated the teaching of the truths of the Bible.

W. E. Sheldon, of the Hancock School, Boston, spoke of the methods to be adopted in applying the principles of truth practically by the teacher in the work in the school-room. He argued with earnestness against the use of the rod in the training of girls; while he would not say that it was never needed, he thought the arts of peace and persuasion much better in forming character.

The discussion held the large audience for nearly three hours, and was continued by Dixie Crosby of New Hampshire, J. J. Ladd of Providence, R. I., Dr. A. A. Miner and Mr. Sheldon.

AUGUST 8.

The members of the Institute assembled for the second day's session at nine o'clock. Prayer was offered by Dr. Miner, of Tufts College. The minutes of the proceedings of the day before were read and approved, and E. A. Hubbard, Esq., made his report as auditor, and certified to the correctness of the accounts of the treasurer.

The Institute entered upon the consideration of the topic assigned for the first hour, — "Reading as a Fine Art," and Prof. Lewis B. Monroe, of Boston; Messrs. M. J. Brown, of Boston; David Crosby, of Nashua, N. H.; Hon. Joseph White, Secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts; Dr. Miner and Mr. Philbrick, of Boston; took part in the discussion.

At the end of the first hour, the subject of "Graded Schools" was taken up, and Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Public Schools of Boston, opened the discussion, and spoke of the varieties of graded schools and advantages to be derived from grading schools. Among the advantages were economy, discipline, the stimulus of promotion, the classification of teachers according to their adaptation to the duties to be performed, and others of a general character.

A recess of a few minutes followed, after which Rev. Milo C. Stebbins, of the Springfield High School, was introduced and gave an interesting and suggestive lecture on "Practicality." The address was received with marked favor. At its conclusion the Institute adjourned until afternoon.

The session re-opened at 2 1-2 o'clock, and the theme of discussion was "Reconstruction in its relations to Education." T. D. Adams, Esq., of the Newton High School, opened the debate. Harmony in all the parts was the essential condition of reconstruction, and this was precluded by the inequality arising from the ignorance of the great mass of the Southern people. Until this was removed by diffusing the principles of culture for all, black and white, it would be impossible to have any real community of interests. Education must be the cement of the Union, and without it we should always be a dissevered people. The people of the South should have equal facilities for popular education with the people of the North, and it was our sovereign duty to furnish these for them.

The debate was continued by Messrs. L. E. Chittenden, late of the Treasury Department, Washington; Hill, of Lynn, Mass., and Zalmon Richards, of Washington.

The consideration of the subject of reading was resumed, and Messrs. Clafin of Worcester, Chase of Richmond, Va., Prof. Buckham of the Vermont University, Zalmon Richards of Washington, D. C., Mr. Slade of Fall River, Hon. Joseph White, Secretary of the Board of Education of Mass., and H. E. Sawyer of New Britain, Conn., were among the speakers on the subject. Exercises in elocution followed conducted by Mr. Monroe, which terminated the business of the afternoon session.

At the evening session the exercises consisted of music by a volunteer quartet club, a lecture by Prof. J. S. Tyler of Amherst College, on "Socrates as a Model Teacher" and readings by Mr. Monroe.

AUGUST 9.

The President called the meeting to order at nine o'clock, and the exercises were opened with the singing of a hymn. Prayer was offered by the Rev. Mr. Ware, of Burlington. Mr. Converse, of Burlington, Vt., spoke upon the personal influence of the teacher, and this was followed by a number of suggestions in relation to the study of the Constitution of the United States and those of the different States, made by Messrs. Ladd, of Providence; Sawyer, of Connecticut; Todd, of Massachusetts; Mowry, of Rhode Island; Sherwin, of the English High School, Boston, and Philbrick, of Boston.

Mr. Hoyt, of Providence, R. I., offered the following:

Whereas, it has pleased God to remove by death one of the original officers of this Institute, Rev. Francis Wayland, D.D., LL.D., therefore

Resolved: That in his death we recognize the loss of one whose pen, voice, and personal influence, have done much to advance the cause of education and mould the present age; and while we pay a tribute of respect to the memory of one so eminent as an educator, we would also gratefully recognize the services of the first president of the American Institute of Instruction.

Remarks eulogistic of the late Dr. Wayland were offered by Mr. Merrick

Lyon of Providence, R. I., Prof. Albert Harkness of Brown University, and Mr. Mowry of Rhode Island, and the resolution was adopted.

After a short recess, in the absence of Prof. Green of Brown University, who was announced to lecture at eleven o'clock, Hon. George F. Edmunds, United States Senator from Vermont, delivered an address on "Learning the Principal Safeguard of Liberty and Order."

In the afternoon letters were received and read from Rev. Dr. McCosh, of Queen's College, Belfast, Ireland; Señor Sarmiento, Minister Plenipotentiary of the Argentine Republic; Nathan Hedges, Esq., of Newark, N. J., and others. The following officers for the ensuing year were unanimously elected:

President — William E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.

Vice-Presidents — William Russell, Lancaster, Mass.; Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.; Samuel S. Greene, Providence, R. I.; Ariel Parish, New Haven, Conn.; Geo. B. Emerson, Boston, Mass.; Nathan Hedges, Newark, N. J.; Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C.; John W. Bulkley, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Thos. Sherwin, Boston, Mass.; David N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.; John D. Philbrick, Boston, Mass.; Alpheus Crosby, Salem, Mass.; Ebenezer Hervey, New Bedford, Mass.; Henry E. Sawyer, Middletown, Conn.; E. P. Weston, Farmington, Me.; Emery F. Strong, Bridgeport, Conn.; D. B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.; A. P. Stone, Portland, Me.; Charles Northend, New Britain, Conn.; B. G. Northrop, Saxonville, Mass.; John Kneeland, Roxbury, Mass.; T. W. Valentine, Brooklyn, N. Y.; J. E. Littlefield, Bangor, Me.; Joseph White, Williamstown, Mass.; Charles Hammond, Monson, Mass.; Abner J. Phipps, Lowell, Mass.; John W. Dickinson, Westfield, Mass.; Merrick Lyon, Providence, R. I.; Elbridge Smith, Dorchester, Mass.; Samuel M. Perkins, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Saml. W. Mason, Boston, Mass.; A. A. Miner, Boston, Mass.; Albert Harkness, Providence, R. I.; M. H. Buckham, Burlington, Vt.; D. W. Stevens, Fall River, Mass.; David Crosby, Nashua, N. H.; William P. Atkinson, Cambridge, Mass.

Recording Secretary — Charles A. Morrill, Boston, Mass.

Assistant Recording Secretary — George T. Littlefield, Somerville, Mass.

Corresponding Secretaries — T. D. Adams, Newton, Mass.; J. J. Ladd, Providence, R. I.

Treasurer — Granville B. Putnam, Boston, Mass.

Curators — J. E. Horr, Brookline, Mass.; Samuel Swan, Boston, Mass.; Henry C. Hardon, Boston, Mass.

Censors — James A. Page, Boston, Mass.; C. Goodwin Clark, Boston, Mass.; Edward Stickney, Newton, Mass.

Counsellors — Charles Hutchins, Boston, Mass.; George N. Bigelow, Framingham, Mass.; Wm. T. Adams, Boston, Mass.; A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.; W. A. Mowry, Providence, R. I.; N. A. Calkins, New York City; J. W. Webster, Boston, Mass.; D. W. Jones, Roxbury, Mass.; J. A. Bartlett, New Britain, Conn.; A. S. Higgins, Brooklyn, N. Y.; I. N. Camp, Burlington, Vt.; D. W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I.

Mr. Claflin of Worcester offered resolutions on the death of James S. Eaton of Andover, Wm. J. Adams and Wm. B. Fowle of Boston. The discussion on the subject of "The Place of the Sciences and the Classics in a Liberal Education" ensued, the speakers being Prof. Harkness of Brown University, and Prof. Atkinson of the Mass. Institute of Technology. The remaining hours of the afternoon session were devoted to illustrations of the system of "object teaching."

The evening session was taken up by speakers representing fifteen states and

cities and the British Provinces, who spoke briefly on general subjects, and after passing a resolution of thanks to the citizens of Burlington for their hospitality extended to the very large number of ladies in attendance, and singing "Old Hundred," the Institute adjourned.

MEETING AT THE EDUCATIONAL ROOM.

JAMES A. PAGE, Esq., of Boston (Dwight School), in the Chair.

In compliance with the unanimous request of the meeting, Mr. JOHN D. PHILBRICK gave the following most interesting account of the results of his observation during a recent visit, in company with members of the Boston School Committee, to the schools of New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington:

Mr. PHILBRICK began by saying that in Massachusetts, and particularly in Boston, we were apt to assume that our school system was in all respects superior to that of other places. We are, therefore, less inclined to examine other systems. In other places, on the contrary, a great desire is manifested to know what is doing here. They study our schools, take their best points, and try to improve upon them. The result is, that we find them gradually adopting, with still further improvements, the chief excellences of our system. New York and Boston are the two cities which are considered most worthy of imitation in school matters. There are decided indications that the main features of the school-systems of these two places are being gradually incorporated into those of other localities.

Mr. PHILBRICK then proceeded to speak of the schools of New York. The *system* there, he said, is more fully developed, and more thoroughly carried out than in any other city. It assumed such vast proportions, and was so perfect in all its parts, that he was inclined to call it an *Imperial System*. They spend annually two million dollars, employ between two and three thousand teachers, and have under instruction about two hundred thousand different pupils. Their system differs in some important respects from ours. First, their method of control and supervision is peculiar. They have a grand central Board of Control, which possesses almost unlimited power. It consists of twenty-one members, one being elected annually from each of the seven districts, and serving for three years. They had full power to legislate in all matters pertaining to the schools, subject only to the legislature of the State. They fix, within certain very liberal limits, the amount of money to be raised for educational purposes; and whatever they call for, the assessors must levy. They are not obliged, as here, to have the concurrence of the Common Council. They are also empowered to expend the money as they see fit. They have, in short, more power than any similar board in the country. There is another board of officers, consisting of an equal number, and styled the Board of Inspectors. They are charged with the duty of examining teachers, and act also as an Auditing Committee.

There is still another grade, called the Board of Trustees. It consists of five members from each ward, and acts as a Local Committee. They nominate teach-

ers, who, however, are subject to rejection by the Board of Control. They also determine the salaries within certain fixed limits. The Superintendent of Schools performs most of the actual labor of examining teachers. He holds weekly examinations, at which he examines all applicants. To those who pass through it satisfactorily, he gives a certificate, without which no teacher is ever employed. The law requires that at least two members of the Board of Inspectors shall be present during the examination. This is for the sake both of the Superintendent and candidates. As, however, the Committee are elected mainly for business purposes, it is hardly to be expected that all its members will be competent to examine teachers. The main responsibility, therefore, rests with the Superintendent. He with his assistants is also, for the same reason, the real examiner of the schools, although part of the work is done by the Committee. A standard is fixed to which teachers are required to attain. If they fall below this standard more than once they are liable to be dismissed from the service. If the standard is a fair one, and the examination properly conducted, this is an excellent plan, as it places before the teacher a definite mark at which to aim.

There is also a Superintendent of Buildings, who, with his corps of assistants, has charge of the construction of all school-edifices. He has under his control workshops and all necessary appliances. With such an arrangement, provided the Superintendent be competent, great progress will inevitably be made in the art of construction. This result is very noticeable in New York. In one direction this progress has been very marked, namely, that of economy. In the art of getting much for little money, New York certainly far surpasses all other cities. There was another officer whose duty consisted in inspecting and regulating the heating and ventilation of the school-rooms. Then there is a clerk with fifteen assistants and a salary of \$5,000, who attends to the financial business, pays the teachers, keeps the accounts, and also keeps a record of all laws relating to educational matters that are passed by the legislature. There is one striking difference, in regard to school-legislation, between New York and Massachusetts. Here, there is a strong sentiment against making laws solely for the benefit of cities, while there the feeling is exactly the reverse, and laws are enacted with reference only to the convenience of cities. It is in a great measure owing to this that they are able to bring their school-system to such perfection. — Books and stationery are furnished entirely by the city. An estimate is made of the probable needs of the various schools, in this respect, even down to the smallest articles as pencils, rubber, etc. This is called a tariff of supplies. — The common schools are divided into three grades, Primary, Grammar and Evening. The teachers are classed as Principals, Vice-Principals and Assistants. The Principal is not required to teach, but merely acts as Superintendent, and divides his time among the different rooms according to his own judgment. This feature is as yet peculiar to New York, although some elements of it exist in Cincinnati. It is a great element of power. A capable man or woman has thus nothing to do but carry out the system. They *must* have better teaching than if the master were tied down to his own class. Teaching is, and must be done, to a great extent, by females who remain in school but a short time, and consequently

acquire but little experience. There is nothing which does so much to compensate for this, as to have a teacher of skill and long experience constantly at hand to direct them.

The school buildings are in some respects peculiar. They have three departments; one story is occupied by primary scholars, one by female, and another by male grammar scholars. The "halls" are wholly unsurpassed in size, beauty of construction, and elegance of adornment. In fact, the whole building seems to be constructed with reference to the hall. Some of them are of sufficient size to contain from eight hundred to one thousand pupils. Their class-rooms, however, are too small, and are not well arranged. The children sit on benches instead of chairs. With halls such as theirs, and class-rooms like those of Boston, a school building would, he thought, be nearly perfect. One good result of small class-rooms, however, is that only a few scholars — not more than thirty or forty — are placed under one teacher, who is thus enabled to give more personal attention to the different members of his class. The studying is all done out of school. The teacher therefore is required to labor constantly with the scholars during all the time that they are in school. They are forbidden, moreover, to give lessons which it requires more than two hours to commit, and also to give any that have not been thoroughly explained to the scholars. No lesson at all, either in grammar or arithmetic, must be given till scholars are in the first class. All the teaching in these branches previous to this must be oral. This plan corrects the tendency which always exists in schools that are very thoroughly graded, to devote too much time to committing lessons to memory. The results obtained by it are very satisfactory. If a teacher is detected in violating any of these rules, he is liable to be deprived of his certificate. — Another peculiarity of these schools is that the programme does not prescribe the text-books, but only the branches to be taught. This emancipates the teacher from the slavish devotion to the text-book which prevails in some localities, and which forces scholars to learn so much that is useless. Those who teach in this way are not, of course, examined from the book. Mr. Philbrick thought this an excellent method and well deserving of imitation. Mr. Wells, in his "Graded Schools," had advocated this system, and had done great service by giving there a list of subjects to be taught, which had been extensively copied by teachers. To apply this method successfully, it is of course necessary that the schools should be very thoroughly graded. The main requisite, however, is skilful teachers. It is useless to attempt to make good schools by means of rules and regulations. He believed in securing good teachers, and then allowing them a great deal of liberty.

He believed oral teaching to be far superior to that done by assigning lessons for the scholars to commit; especially is this true of arithmetic. Formerly the principal care of the teacher of arithmetic was to ascertain if the answers were correct, and to prevent the scholars from consulting the key. Skilful teachers had often of late remarked to him that they cared not how much their pupils saw the key. It was of no service to them, as they taught, to be able merely to give the correct figures. — The regulations of the Board of Control require also that teachers shall have weekly reviews, to be conducted wholly without the use

of books. This is a good, as well as unique plan. Altogether, the speaker thought that more harmony existed in the theoretical arrangement of the school system of New York than in that of any other city.

Mr. P. then proceeded to speak of the Free Academy. The liberality and munificence with which this institution is endowed, is wholly without parallel. The annual expense is nearly \$100,000. The Principal receives a salary of \$4,750; the Professors \$3,750, and the subordinate teachers \$2,500 each. The course of study includes all the branches pursued at college. Most of the studying is done at home, and there seems to be much hard work accomplished. He had never seen such fine specimens of drawing as were exhibited here. An accomplished German Professor of drawing is employed, and all the pupils draw at least one hour each day. None, however, but those meaning to be engineers, go through the entire course in this department.

There are five grades of primary and five of grammar schools. There are no high schools except those maintained by the different wards. There is, in these, a supplementary grade where the higher branches are taught, and through which it takes two years to pass. Some of the higher branches are also allowed to be taught in the grammar schools.

In regard to the system of discipline pursued in New York, the speaker stated that corporal punishment was forbidden to be inflicted except by the Principal, and he was required to report each case to the Superintendent. This arrangement, together with the constant supervision which the master is able to exercise, makes the discipline very easy for the lady teachers. The order in the schools was uniformly most excellent. Nearly all the cases of discipline arise from the crowded condition of the scholars while at play in the yard. The ease with which order is maintained in the school-room is also owing, in a great measure, to the fact that the teachers teach all the time, and consequently have the scholars constantly under their eye, and always employed. The rules for their behavior while in the hall are very strict. The filing-in, rising, sitting, and in fact every motion are performed with the utmost precision, and at signals so slight as often to be wholly unnoticed by the spectator. This strictness of order in the halls seems actually to be kept up by the momentum which the children have acquired in the school-room. One who addresses them is very much gratified by the close attention paid to him. Every eye seems to be constantly fixed upon him. He (Mr. P.) tried, on one occasion, to divert the attention of some little girls who were sitting near him. He found it, however, nearly impossible. He did not say that such precision should be attempted by every one. It was, however, very pleasing to the eye. The politeness and attention with which visitors are treated, is to them, at least, not the least pleasing feature of the New York system of management.

The great criterion of success in the grammar schools is the number of scholars that are fitted for the Academy. Some schools acquire great celebrity for this, and the result is that, there being no territorial limits for each school, they are constantly overcrowded. There are other schools which pride themselves upon their success in fitting scholars for the common duties of life.

The system of Philadelphia is entirely different from that of New York. They have a grammar, intermediate and primary department for each sex in the same building. They are now trying in some of their schools the departmental system, one teacher being only required to teach one branch, and the scholars going from room to room to recite their various lessons. This system is fully carried out in the Girls' High and Normal School. The teacher who is obliged to teach but one branch can dispense with the use of books in recitation. The teaching is done, also, almost entirely by means of question and answer. Thus the talking is nearly all done by the teacher. In Boston, on the contrary, the time is, in general, nearly all occupied by the pupils. The Philadelphia method is very captivating to strangers. He would, however, recommend a medium between the two.

The system of Baltimore is in imitation of that of Philadelphia. One peculiarity, however, is, that their most modern schoolhouses are all built with but two stories. So strong is their prejudice against high buildings, that the occupants of the Girls' High School building are clamoring for a new house, mainly on the ground that their present one is three stories high. The reading, singing, and composition to which he listened in this school were of a very high order. He was particularly struck with the propriety of manner which characterized the performance of the young ladies who were called upon to read. It denoted both modesty and self-possession.

One great test of a school-system is the kind of teachers that it is able to get and keep. This depends largely upon the amount of salary paid. In Baltimore and Philadelphia the scholars are distributed into so many different departments, thus requiring a corresponding number of principals, that the salaries are necessarily smaller than they would otherwise be. This renders it more difficult to procure and retain the best teaching talent. The highest salary paid in a grammar school in Baltimore is \$1300. One large boys' school is superintended by a female at a salary of \$1000, and an assistant with a salary of \$500. The average number of pupils under one Principal here is only two hundred, and in Philadelphia it is less than two hundred and fifty. In Boston the other extreme prevails, one thousand often being under the care of one Superintendent. This he thought, too many. Five or six hundred would, he believed, be better. He would suggest as an improvement to the systems of Baltimore and Philadelphia, that the departments be enlarged so that larger salaries can be paid.

The school-system of Washington, although recently inaugurated and partially developed, more nearly resembles, in its theory, that of Boston than that of either of the other cities. The subject of education is at this time attracting unusual attention there. A school-house is now in process of erection, which will, when completed, surpass, both in beauty and cost, any other in the country. It is intended to combine the New York halls with the Boston class-rooms. There seems to be throughout the country a strong tendency to follow this plan in the construction of school edifices.

One of the most serious evils which he observed was that in some of the schools the scholars were overworked. He had asked a number of girls how many hours

a day they devoted to study. He found by their answers that some of them spent as many as eight and quite a large number as many as five or six hours besides their regular school session.

GEO. K. DANIELL, JR., *Sec'y.*

THE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Our excellent Normal Schools have all had their public examinations and graduating exercises since the publication of our last number. The Salem school, which, under Mr. Hagar, the able successor of Prof. Crosby, shows no diminution of numbers, graduated a class of twenty-five young ladies; the Framingham school, which, during the winter in the absence of the Principal, had been in charge of Miss Johnson and her efficient corps of lady assistants, a like number; the Westfield and the Bridgewater schools, a smaller number. In the two first-named schools many of the pupils reside at home, and the increased cost of board has made but little difference in their numbers; but at Westfield and Bridgewater this cause has led to a sensible diminution in the size of the classes, and it becomes an interesting question whether something cannot be done to counteract its effect. At Harvard College the revived system of "commons," under the superintendence of the college authorities, where the students are charged a small percentage over the bare first cost of food, has proved very successful in reducing the increasing expense of the college course. Whether some such plan would be feasible here we must leave with the authorities to decide.

Of the change which has taken place in the management of the Framingham school we are happy to be able to print the following explanation.

"Our readers are perhaps aware that an important change has been made in the direction and management of this school. It is hereafter to be under the charge of Miss Annie E. Johnson, as Principal. She has been for some years a teacher in the institution, and her capacity for the place is unquestioned.

For the reasons and policy of the measure, the following are the views of the Board as indicated by the visitors of the school on their announcement to its pupils, of the action which had been had upon the subject.

It is nearly thirty years since the system of Normal Schools was adopted in the Commonwealth. The school now at Framingham was the first of those which have since so fully sustained the most sanguine expectations of the friends of the system. The character and condition of this school were highly satisfactory to the Board, nor had they any wish to make any change in the corps of teachers beyond what was necessary in order to accomplish the plan which they had proposed to adopt in respect to its management. No one outside of their body was in any way responsible for the measure, and it was a matter of regret that in order to its being carried into effect, they were to lose the skill and experience of the present head of the school.

Among the considerations which weighed in their minds, in coming to the conclusion which they had, were the following.

It was problematical, when the schools were established, how far it was safe and expedient to place our schools under the charge of female teachers. There was a general feeling that it was desirable to open to woman fields of occupation and employment suited to her constitution and habits of life, in which she would come into fair competition with her brothers for compensation as well as success. It was moreover desirable that the competition between individuals of the sex should be upon the ground of superior qualifications rather than the numbers who might be inclined to enter the field.

It was believed by those who had made the subject a study, that the education of the young offered one of these fields for effort, and that woman had many qualifications for its duties which would enable her to excel as a teacher. And the experiment has so far succeeded, that the public had become satisfied that the expectations of the friends of the measure had been more than answered by what had already been achieved. All that remained was to impress upon the public mind what was due to these teachers in the way of adequate compensation. And even in that respect the feeling was tending in a right direction. By the return of the schools of the Commonwealth, in 1838, the number of female teachers was but sixty in a hundred, whereas by that of 1866 it was eighty-six in a hundred; and during the last year the increase of female teachers was one hundred and fifty-three, while the decrease of male teachers was one hundred and thirty-eight. Their compensation, in the mean time, had almost doubled, and had been increased, the very last year, upon an average, \$2.45 per month.

In view of facts like these, the Board of Education had been deliberating for the last year, whether the time had not come when another step should be taken in the progress of popular education, by placing one of the Female Normal Schools of the State wholly under the charge and direction of one of their own sex. It was obviously unfair to discriminate in the way of compensation between teachers as a class on the ground of their relative rank and position, and to deny one of the sexes any chance to rise above the subordinate condition in which they have hitherto been kept in our schools. If woman was competent to fill a higher place, there was no justice in shutting her out by arbitrary rule or custom. The Board had come to the conclusion that the general good of the schools in the State, as well as a sense of what was due to the sex, as co-laborers in the field of education, called for the experiment, at least, to be made, of placing one of these schools under the management of a female principal, and that the situation and surroundings of the one at Framingham obviously indicated it as the one in which the experiment should be made. They considered themselves fortunate in having secured the services of Miss Johnson, and they look forward with much interest, but entire confidence, to the result. If it failed, it must be upon the ground that woman cannot teach or will not be taught by woman. It could not fail, unless the sex were willing to have it understood that in the sphere for which they were specially designed by Providence, they could never hope to rise above a subordinate position, and were to be forever content with an inferior and inadequate compensation. The Board, on their part, did not apprehend

any such result. The experiment, in their belief, would vindicate for women a right to claim a rank equal to any among the educators in our land."

A CORRESPONDENT suggests the following orthographical experiment: "Distribute to your class small slips of paper, and without previous notice or special injunction, require them to write thereon 'Caterpillar,' 'Stomach.' Collect and examine the papers, and note the variety in the modes of spelling. Quite a display of originality is the usual result." We should be glad to get a report of such an experiment.

MASSACHUSETTS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The next *Annual Meeting* of the Association will be held in Boston, at the Tremont Temple, the sessions commencing on the afternoon of Thursday the 11th of October, and continuing two days. The meeting last year was very successful; it seemed to be the beginning of a new era in the life of the Association. To make the meeting of the present year equally successful and profitable, it is only necessary for School Committees everywhere throughout the State to follow the wise precedent of last year, in permitting teachers to dismiss their schools on the days of the meeting. The programme will appear in our next number.

INTELLIGENCE.

MR. J. F. CLAFLIN, of Newton, has accepted the appointment of Principal of the Worcester High School, at a salary of \$2,500. On leaving Newton he was presented by his friends there with a purse of \$350, and by his pupils with an ice pitcher and salver and a handsome Bible.

MR. E. STICKNEY, of the Gibson School, Dorchester, succeeds Mr. Claflin at Newton.

MR. F. L. HOSMER, of the Adams School, Dorchester, has resigned, with the intention of preparing for the ministry.

BOOK NOTICES.

[We desire to make our acknowledgments to our publishing friends, and especially to Messrs. A. Williams & Co., for their numerous contributions to our book-table.]

HOMES WITHOUT HANDS, being a description of the Habitations of Animals, classed according to their principle of construction, by the Rev. J. G. Wood, with many illustrations, 8vo, pp. XVI. and 651. New York: Harper & Bros.

If we were only rich enough we would put a copy of this fascinating book into every school in the Commonwealth, and we should expect to be abundantly repaid by the increased interest that would be sure to follow in the neglected study of Natural History. In all that wonderful study there are no more wonderful chapters than are here, by a happy thought, brought together into a

volume. Wonderful houses dug in the ground by beast, bird, insect, and shell-fish; wonderful houses hung in the air; a whole town of houses under one roof like the social weaver-birds; wonderful houses in the heart of trees, and the caddis drawing his house of shells and sand along the bed of the brook, and fishes which build *nests* in the sea; the oven-bird looking out of his door, and the tailor-bird sewing his curious nest; the ant-lion digging his pit, the robber-crab plundering his neighbors, and the raft-spider navigating his frail and curious craft, and the curious nest of the myrapetra in the heart of South American forests. If one would receive a new impression of the infinite wonders of creation he has only to peruse the pages and examine the very beautiful illustrations of this beautiful book. We trust it will find a place in many a town and school library.

HISTORY OF JULIUS CÆSAR, Vol. 2, 8vo., Harper & Bros.

We heartily detest the unprincipled Emperor of France. The unscrupulous adventurer whose name, coupled with his crimes and his audacity, has transferred him from the purlieus of the Bowery to a throne, where, as far as he dares, and as far as the spirit of the age permits him, he stifles liberty, and uses a great nation to serve the purposes of his vulgar ambition, is doubtless in the hands of Providence an instrument for ends at which he himself is far from aiming,—suffices at least to show that when of such stuff emperors can be made, the day of empires and emperors must be nearly at an end. But an emperor when he writes history, has imperial means of collecting information, and although he does not write it very well, and though his first volume was in part but a thinly disguised plea for what he calls his Napoleonic ideas of modern government, yet we presume that in this volume, which recounts the Gallic campaigns of Cæsar, the master of all the learned men of France has not failed to gather together what new light can be thrown by careful diligence on the course of the great Roman general's career. The book must, therefore, be an instructive commentary on the Commentaries of Cæsar.

Its typographical appearance is extremely handsome, and is a credit to the press of the Harpers. We miss the maps and plans of the original, but presume they are to be given in a volume by themselves.

THE PRINCIPLES OF LATIN GRAMMAR, by Peter Bullions, D. D., revised by Charles D. Morris, late Rector of Trinity School, New York, and formerly Fellow of Oriel College, England, 12mo, pp. 390. New York: Sheldon & Co.

A new edition of the late Dr. Bullions's well-known Grammar, carefully revised by a thoroughly competent English scholar, and very clearly and handsomely printed. We will call the attention of teachers to one point, by the following extracts from Mr. Morris's preface:

"In the treatment of all inflected words, attention has been called to the stems or uninflected forms, from which the several cases or persons are made. Though the editor is himself convinced that it is the best as well as the most scientific way to teach pupils to remember the stem, and not the nominative case or first person singular, as representing the word denuded of all its accidental modifica-

tions, he has not ventured to do more in this direction than to give such teachers as may agree with him an opportunity of carrying out this system. For the rest, the Declensions and the Conjugations are presented and distinguished in the customary manner.

"The subject of the Third Declension has been much more fully treated than in former editions of the Grammar. In this, more than elsewhere, the immense advantage of the stem-system is perceptible. But the far greater number of words declined at length must prove advantageous to all, whether they work on that system or in the ordinary method.

"The conjugation of the verb has been subjected to an elaborate analysis, which will, it is hoped, render the whole subject one of scientific interest, as well as greatly to facilitate its thorough comprehension. Here, again, the utility of the stem-system is shown; and the editor is convinced that if teachers who are fortunate enough to have intelligent and earnest pupils will use the tables on pp. 134-137, to impart the conjugations, before giving them the same conjugations to learn in the ordinary way, they will be amazed at the clearness and the rapidity with which the whole subject will be mastered."

THE BIBLE READER; being a new selection of Reading Lessons from the Holy Scriptures, for the use of Schools and Families, by William B. Fowle, 12mo, pp. 283. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The author's aim in this selection is well indicated by the following passage from his Preface:

"The author of this compilation has endeavored to furnish such a selection of Scripture lessons as may be used in schools and families, without subjecting the teacher or reader to the trouble of making a selection at the time of reading. That some selection was called for, no one will deny who has attempted to read the Bible in course to his pupils, or to his family; and whence is it that the Scriptures are so little read in our schools, when the conviction is so general that the Bible ought to be a school-book, if it be not that a suitable selection could not be found? After reading the Scriptures more than seventeen years in his own school, where are female children of all ages, and of every denomination of Christians, the compiler has endeavored to meet his own wants, after waiting in vain to have them better supplied.

"The work is divided into Three Parts: the *first* containing selections from the Old Testament; the *third*, selections from the New, in chronological order, so that a correct general outline of Scripture history may be impressed upon the mind by the perusal of this compend; and the *second* part contains such miscellaneous passages as most forcibly exhibit the precepts of our religion, arranged under suitable heads."

HARPER'S PICTORIAL HISTORY OF THE GREAT REBELLION, by A. H. Guernsey and H. M. Alden. Part I, to the close of the Peninsular Campaign of 1862, folio, pp. 380. Harper & Bros.

A folio volume, profusely illustrated with maps, plans, and innumerable woodcuts of actual scenes and incidents, and the text based throughout upon authen-

tic documents. Such a book is destined for many years to come to be a source of interest and entertainment by many a fireside, and we hope also in many a school library. A second volume will complete the work.

A NARRATIVE OF ANDERSONVILLE, drawn from the evidence elicited on the trial of Henry Wirz, the Jailor, with the argument of N. P. Chipman, the Judge Advocate; by Ambrose Spencer. New York: Harper & Bros. 12mo, pp. 272.

To any one who may have a lingering feeling that there can be any notion of true heroism or true chivalry attaching to the basest rebellion and the vilest cause men ever fought in, we would prescribe the reading of this horrible story. Mr. Spencer has done well to add to it the argument of Col. Chipman, prefacing it with the following opinion of the Hon. Joseph Holt, Judge Advocate General, taken from the Report of the Secretary of War for 1865, p. 1004:

"A peculiar characteristic of these State trials, and that which must invest them with a deep historical importance, is the fact, that while the accused were in each case adjudged to have been guilty of the crimes with which they were charged, the *complicity* in those crimes of the *chiefs of the rebellion* was declared by the Court in their findings, and upon testimony which is deemed to have fully warranted the conclusions reached. In each case, the proof justified the conviction that the prisoners before the court were not merely personal criminals, but *conspirators*; that they were the hirelings and accomplices of the cabal of traitors of whom Davis was the acknowledged chief; and that these traitors were in fact as well as in law, equally with the accused responsible for the detestable deeds which were adduced in evidence."

MANUAL OF FRENCH PRONUNCIATION, with extracts from the French Classics, written in phonetic characters; by Adrien Feline. Revised with additions by William Watson, Ph. D. Boston: Lee & Shepard, 16mo, pp. XVI. and 159.

This very neat little book is an ingenious attempt to apply the system of phonetic spelling to the object of teaching the pronunciation of the French language. It is not intended by it to attempt to supersede the necessity of learning the sounds by the ear. A complete phonetic French alphabet is given, the sounds of which the student is supposed to learn from a competent French teacher. This once being done, the remainder of the book consists of dialogues, the conjugations of the verbs, and afterwards selections from French writers, printed in ordinary and also in the author's phonetic type, in parallel columns, for the student's practice. The usual and very clumsy and misleading method of attempting to represent the sounds of the language by words taken from another is altogether discarded.

The author has devoted much time to the study and analysis of the sounds of the French language, and his editor has had the benefit of his personal instructions. We understand that the method has been used successfully in Germany, but it is new in this country, and we commend it to the attention of teachers and students of the language.